1	Experimental evaluation of environmental DNA detection of a rare fish in turbid
2	water
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4	Running title: eDNA experiments in turbid water
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23	DNA; particulate matter; real-time polymerase chain reaction; turbidity

25 Abstract

26 Environmental DNA (eDNA) approaches enable sensitive detection of rare aquatic 27 species. However, water conditions like turbidity can limit sensitivity, resulting in false 28 negative detections. The dynamics of eDNA detection in turbid conditions are poorly 29 understood, but can be better characterized through experimental work. In this study, 1-30 L field-collected water samples were spiked with tank-sourced eDNA from a rare, endangered estuarine fish at concentrations similar to eDNA samples collected from the 31 32 natural environment. Samples using non-turbid water (5 NTU), turbid water (50 NTU), 33 and prefiltered turbid water were filtered using four filter types (pore size range 0.45 µm-34 10 µm). Detection success using a species-specific Tagman qPCR assay was assessed 35 as both eDNA copy number and detection/non-detection. Glass fiber filters (nominal pore size 1.6 µm) yielded the highest number of eDNA copies and detections in non-36 37 turbid water and the highest detection rate in turbid water when used without a prefilter. 38 Detection was a more robust metric for evaluating species presence across turbidity 39 conditions compared with eDNA copy number. Prefiltration improved detection rates for 40 the other filters tested (polycarbonate and cartridge filters). Filter material and design appear to interact differently with the prefiltration step, and may be more important 41 42 considerations than pore size for eDNA capture in turbid water. Interactions between 43 eDNA particles, suspended particulate matter, and filters are important to consider for eDNA methods optimization and interpretation of rare species detections in turbid 44 45 water.

46

47 Introduction

Environmental DNA (eDNA) can be an efficient tool for surveying species; it can 48 be as or more sensitive than conventional survey methods (Jerde et al. 2011; Shaw et 49 50 al. 2016; Sigsgaard et al. 2017) and detect species not detected using other methods 51 (e.g., Budd et al. 2021; Renan et al. 2017). Indirect detection using eDNA poses little or 52 no risk of sampling-related mortality or stress to both target and non-target organisms, 53 an advantage when targeting or sampling in the vicinity of endangered or sensitive species. Moreover, eDNA samples can usually be collected with less risk to personnel 54 55 in potentially hazardous conditions (e.g., high gradient streams and rivers). However, 56 despite the advantages of using eDNA to survey rare species, challenging 57 environmental conditions may adversely affect detection sensitivity, resulting in false 58 negative detections. The sensitivity of eDNA detection is influenced by interacting suites of biological 59 and environmental conditions (Barnes and Turner 2016). Target organism biomass. 60 61 individual body size, and eDNA shed rate may influence eDNA detection probability 62 (e.g., Sassoubre et al. 2016). Environmental conditions such as water movement, 63 turbidity, temperature, pH, salinity, solar radiation, or microbial community composition (or the related biotic conditions) also affect species detection (e.g., Collins et al. 2018; 64 Jane et al. 2015; Laramie et al. 2015; Seymour et al. 2018; Shogren et al. 2018; 65 66 Strickler et al. 2015; Tsuji et al. 2019). Turbidity is a previously recognized challenge for 67 eDNA sampling and a suspected cause of reduced sensitivity and false negative 68 detections (Egeter et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2017).

69 Turbidity can affect eDNA detection in a variety of ways. Turbidity is a measure 70 of light scatter in water and is associated with reduced water clarity, although they are not necessarily equivalent measurements. Turbidity is caused by a variety of unrelated 71 72 phenomena including particulates spanning a range of sizes and compositions (e.g., 73 sediment, inorganic material, or organic material such as plankton and plant detritus) 74 and decreased water clarity without particulates (e.g., staining by tannins from plant 75 material). Both particulates and staining can introduce PCR inhibitors (e.g., humic 76 compounds; Matheson et al. 2010) that interfere with molecular detection. The effects of 77 PCR inhibitors can be effectively removed without diluting samples using appropriate 78 extraction methods (Hunter et al. 2015) or with a post-extraction inhibitor removal step 79 (Williams et al. 2017).

80 Suspended particulate matter remains a major challenge for eDNA detection. 81 Particulates clog filters, leading to decreased filtration volumes and long filtration times. 82 Particulate matter can decrease sensitivity or eliminate eDNA detections altogether 83 even when the target species is present (Day et al. 2019). Species detection sensitivity 84 has been positively correlated with volume of water sampled (Hunter et al. 2019; 85 Schabacker et al. 2020; Sepulveda et al. 2019). Sample volume has been shown to 86 influence eDNA detection sensitivity more than the number of samples or quantitative 87 PCR (qPCR) replicates (Schultz and Lance 2015). However, long filtration times may 88 not be worth the wait; measurements of membrane pressure suggest diminishing returns on eDNA detection due to increased pressure during filtration (Thomas et al. 89 90 2018). Filters with larger pores (Robson et al. 2016) and prefiltration (Takahara et al. 91 2012) are recommended to increase water volume and decrease filtering time in turbid

92 systems. While some results suggest a positive effect of prefiltration on eDNA capture
93 (Takahara et al. 2012), presumably due to increased volume filtered, others are
94 inconclusive (Majaneva et al. 2018). A better understanding of the impact of turbidity
95 and methodological adjustments on eDNA detection is necessary, particularly when a
96 rare species of interest is positively associated with turbidity (e.g., Feyrer et al. 2007;
97 Nobriga 2002; Sommer et al. 2011).

In this study, we examine the effects of turbidity and filtration methods for 98 detection of target eDNA in low concentrations. We tested four filter types (pore size 99 100 range 0.45 µm-10 µm) and the addition of a prefiltration step for turbid water. Filters 101 were chosen to capture fish mitochondrial eDNA particles in the size range where they 102 are most abundant (1-10 µm; Turner et al. 2014; Wilcox et al. 2015). We hypothesized 103 that (1) turbidity would decrease both eDNA copies detected and the detection rate, (2) 104 larger filter pore sizes would partially offset the negative effects of suspended 105 particulate matter on eDNA detection, and (3) prefiltration would improve detection in 106 turbid water.

107

108 Materials & Methods

109 Study species and habitat

Delta smelt (*Hypomesus transpacificus*) are small (5-7 cm), critically endangered fish endemic to the San Francisco Estuary (SFE), California, USA. Delta smelt are considered the sentinel species of the SFE ecosystem (Moyle et al. 2018), significant in indigenous Miwko? (Miwok) traditional cultural practice and law (Hankins 2018), and at risk of extinction in the near future (Moyle et al. 2018). Delta smelt typically have an

115 annual life cycle and are unusually sensitive to changes in estuarine conditions (Moyle 116 et al. 1992). The species is protected under both the Federal Endangered Species Act 117 (ESA) and California Endangered Species Act (CESA) due to a 90% decline in 118 population abundance over the two decades prior to listing in 1993 (USFWS 1993). 119 Around 2000, abundance of delta smelt and other pelagic fishes in the SFE again 120 declined dramatically, most likely due to environmental factors including changes in 121 water quality, habitat degradation, and effects of introduced species (Sommer et al. 122 2007; Moyle et al. 2016).

123 The presence of delta smelt is positively associated with turbid water (Feyrer et 124 al. 2007; Nobriga et al. 2008; Sommer et al. 2011) perhaps due to decreased predation 125 risk (Ferrari et al 2014; Bennett and Burau 2015) and increased larval feeding rates 126 (Baskerville-Bridges et al. 2004; Tigan et al. 2020). The physiological performance of 127 delta smelt is negatively affected by turbidity levels below 25 NTU and above 80 NTU 128 (Hasenbein et al. 2016). Turbidity in delta smelt habitat is attributed to suspended 129 sediment transported from upstream sources or resuspended in the water column due 130 to wind or turbulence (Schoellhamer 2002).

Delta smelt are difficult to survey due to extremely low abundance, despite exceptional monitoring efforts by state and federal agencies. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) began year-round, spatially extensive surveys targeting delta smelt using multiple (conventional) gear types in late 2016 (Enhanced Delta Smelt Monitoring program (EDSM; USFWS 2022). The EDSM provides data on distribution and abundance of delta smelt and other species of concern for conservation and management (Mahardja et al. 2021). Pilot eDNA surveys of delta smelt conducted

alongside EDSM trawls and indicated concordance with trawl sampling, but single
positive qPCR replicates for each sample provide weak evidence of species presence
(Supplementary File S1; Goldberg et al. 2016). Moreover, already low trawl detection
rates continued to decrease (USFWS 2022), making further field testing of eDNA
methods unfeasible. Experimental testing was undertaken to determine if turbidity and
filtration methods were major constraints on eDNA detection of delta smelt.

144

145 In vivo testing

146 Quantitative PCR (gPCR) detection of delta smelt eDNA used a Tagman probe 147 and primers previously validated using genomic DNA and tested for cross-reactivity with 148 congener Wakasagi smelt (Hypomesus nipponensis) and 21 other SFE fish species 149 (Baerwald et al. 2011). In this study, the Limit of Detection (LOD) and Limit of 150 Quantification (LOQ) were determined following guidelines for standardized analysis of 151 eDNA samples (Klymus et al. 2019; Merkes et al. 2019) using serial dilutions of a 152 synthetic oligonucleotide gBlocks Gene Fragment (Integrated DNA Technologies, San 153 Diego, CA) of a portion of the delta smelt cytochrome b gene assayed in 8 replicates with a starting concentration of 0.1 pg/ul (3.5×10^6 copies/reaction) and 1:4 subsequent 154 155 dilution.

LOD is defined as the lowest concentration in which the target molecule can be detected in 95% of replicates (Bustin et al. 2009). The theoretical minimum LOD is 3 copies of template DNA per PCR reaction, assuming a Poisson distribution of the target molecules in PCR reactions. The effective LOD is applied to multiple qPCR replicates, showing a decrease in LOD with increasing replicates (Klymus et al. 2019). The LOQ

161	assesses precision using the coefficient of variation (CV) of the measured
162	concentrations of DNA standards (Kubista 2014). The LOQ is defined as the lowest
163	concentration at which the CV of qPCR results is less than 35% (Klymus et al. 2019).
164	
165	Filtration experiment
166	Filtration used a peristaltic pump (Geotech Environmental Equipment Inc.,
167	Denver, Colorado). Bottles and other materials used for filtering were sterilized for at
168	least 20 min in 20% bleach then rinsed three times with clean water. Tubing was
169	sterilized by pumping 20% bleach through the tube for at least 60 sec then flushing the
170	tube with clean water for at least 60 sec. The samples were set up and filtered in a
171	laboratory space free from delta smelt tanks, tissue, or DNA.
172	Estuarine water was collected in sterilized 5-gal buckets from two sites in a
173	freshwater region of the upper SFE where delta smelt are not present (Figure 1).
174	Turbidity of the water collected at the sites was measured at \sim 5 NTU ("non-turbid") and
175	~50 NTU ("turbid") with a Hach 2100Q portable turbidimeter. The non-turbid and turbid
176	designations are relative measures and ecologically relevant to delta smelt; 50 NTU is
177	less turbid than conditions regularly observed in winter in the SFE (>100 NTU). The
178	buckets were covered and transported to UC Davis campus. Water was homogenized
179	by stirring with a sterilized implement before being transferred to sterilized 1 L bottles for
180	the experiment.
181	A schematic of the study design is shown in Figure 2. Water from a 340-L tank

A schematic of the study design is shown in Figure 2. Water from a 340-L tank
 (recirculating aquaculture system with daily make-up water to maintain a tank volume)
 containing an estimated 186 adult delta smelt at the UC Davis Center for Aquatic

184 Biology and Aquaculture was collected in a sterile 1-L bottle and stored on wet ice. The 185 bottle was gently inverted several times to homogenize eDNA prior to pipetting 0.5 mL 186 tank water into each 1 L bottle of estuarine water. Pilot experiments determined that 0.5 187 mL tank water added to 1 L of estuary water produced Ct values similar to field 188 detections. The same process was repeated but 1 mL was added to each bottle in case 189 0.5 mL tank water was undetectable in some replicates. Adding two small but different 190 volumes of tank water also allowed us to assess whether small differences in eDNA 191 concentration can be distinguished at low concentrations. Bottles were placed in a 192 sterilized cooler with wet ice and filtered within ~8 hours.

193 Each bottle was gently inverted several times prior to filtering. Three biological 194 replicates were filtered using each of the four filter types in the three treatments: non-195 turbid water, turbid water, and turbid water with the addition of a prefilter (Table 1). This 196 design resulted in 72 biological replicates (1-L bottles). Glass fiber, polycarbonate filters, 197 and nylon mesh prefilters were loaded into sterile filter holders (Swinnex-47, 198 MilliporeSigma) attached to silicon tubing. Sterivex filter cartridges were attached 199 directly to the tubing. Water was pumped through filters until the 1-L samples was 200 filtered or flow ceased (usually a maximum of ~15 min). Filtration volumes less than 1 L 201 reflect filter clogging in turbid water. After filtration, glass fiber and polycarbonate filters 202 were folded twice and placed in a sterile 2 mL tube and Sterivex filters were capped at 203 each end. The tubes or capped cartridges were placed in individual sterile plastic bags 204 and immediately frozen on dry ice. Frozen samples were transferred to -20°C for 205 storage until extraction. Three negative control samples of estuarine water from each 206 turbidity value without added tank water were processed with the field samples.

207 Genetics work was conducted in a dedicated eDNA laboratory space following 208 recommended guidelines (Goldberg et al. 2016). DNA was extracted in a dedicated 209 eDNA extraction hood using the DNeasy PowerWater Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). 210 which has been shown to effectively remove PCR inhibitors (Eichmiller et al. 2015). 211 DNA from whole 47 mm filters was extracted using the DNeasy PowerWater Kit and 212 from Sterivex cartridges were extracted using the DNeasy PowerWater Sterivex Kit. 213 Extraction protocols followed the manufacturer's instructions including the optional heat 214 lysis step (Supplementary File S2). Elution buffer incubation time was extended to ~20 215 minutes and DNA was eluted into LoBind tubes (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). 216 Six technical replicates (PCR reactions) of each sample and the estuary water 217 negative controls were assayed using a species-specific Tagman assay targeting delta 218 smelt (Baerwald et al. 2011). gPCR reactions set-up in a dedicated eDNA PCR hood 219 used TaqMan Environmental Master Mix 2.0 (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA, USA). 220 Reagent volumes and cycling conditions are listed in Table 2. gPCR was conducted on 221 a single CFX Touch Real-Time PCR instrument (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, 222 USA) in a laboratory room separate from eDNA extraction and PCR setup hoods. No-223 template qPCR controls and gBlock qPCR positive control samples were also assayed 224 using the same protocol.

225

226 Statistical modeling

227 Results were analyzed using generalized linear mixed-effect models (GLMMs) 228 and a model comparison approach. Analysis was conducted in R (R Core Team, 2017) 229 using packages Ime4 (Bates et al. 2015) and bbmle (Bolker and R Development Core

230 Team, 2017). The models used results in non-turbid water, turbid water without a 231 prefilter, and turbid water with a prefilter (n=144 gPCR reactions for each treatment) to 232 identify factors that influence success of delta smelt detection under conditions similar 233 to those observed in the natural environment (turbidity and low eDNA concentrations). 234 Either eDNA copy number or detection/non-detection can be used to evaluate 235 the factors that influence detection. Copy number allows for a more nuanced 236 interpretation of detection success, but may not be reliable for low eDNA concentrations 237 (i.e., below the LOQ). We modeled both eDNA copies detected (as log(copies+1)) and 238 detection/non-detection in each gPCR replicate as response variables in two models. 239 The full model for both analyses included five covariates as fixed effects: "turbidity" (a 240 categorical variable with two levels corresponding to 5 NTU or 50 NTU); "filter type" (a 241 categorical variable with four levels corresponding to the four filter types); "prefilter" (a 242 categorical variable with two levels), "volume filtered" (a continuous variable of the 243 volume of water filtered rounded to the nearest 50 mL), and "volume of tank water 244 added" (a categorical variable with two levels corresponding to addition of 0.5 or 1 mL of 245 water from the tank of delta smelt). Interactions between both turbidity and prefilter with 246 filter type were also considered. Full models included biological replicate (each 1-L 247 bottle filtered) as a random effect to account for bottle-to-bottle (biological replicate) 248 variation within treatments. Models were compared using Akaike's Information Criterion 249 corrected for small sample size (AICc).

250

251 **Results**

252 In vivo testing

The one replicate Limit of Detection (LOD) was 2.47 copies per PCR reaction (SE 1.59) and the Limit of Quantification (LOQ) was 67 copies per PCR reaction (Figure 2; Supplementary Files S3, S4). Although less than the theoretical minimum of 3 copies per reaction, the calculated LOD calculation is acceptable because it falls within the calculated error (Bustin et al. 2009). The effective LOD for six qPCR replicates (the number used in this study) was 1.02 copy per PCR reaction (SE 0.15; Supplementary File S4).

260

261 *Filtration experiment*

262 In non-turbid water, eDNA detection was 100% for glass fiber, cartridge, and 5µm pore polycarbonate filters, and close to 100% for 5-µm pore polycarbonate filters 263 264 (Figure 4; Table 3; Supplemental File S5). eDNA copies were highest for glass fiber 265 filters and cartridge filters, despite the lower volume filtered by cartridge filters due to 266 clogging (Figure 5; Table 3; Supplemental File S5). In turbid water, eDNA detection was 267 nearly 100% for glass fiber filters, but below ~75% for Sterivex filters and at or below 268 50% for both polycarbonate filters (Figure 4; Table 3; Supplemental File S5). Turbidity 269 reduced the number of eDNA copies detected for all samples, especially the Sterivex 270 and polycarbonate filters (Figure 5; Table 3; Supplemental File S5). The addition of a 271 prefilter increased copy numbers and detection rate for all samples except those 272 collected on glass fiber filters, which were negatively impacted by prefiltration (Figure 4, 273 5; Table 3; Supplemental File S5). Delta smelt eDNA was not detected in negative 274 controls of estuarine water or qPCR no template controls.

275

276 Statistical modeling

Model comparison did not support retaining a random effect term for individual bottles (Supplemental File S6). The highest weighted models tested for both response variables retained fixed effects filter type and prefilter, and an interaction between the filter type and prefilter (Table 4; Supplemental File S6). For eDNA copies as the response variable, the full model and a model where only filtration volume was missing. For detection/non-detection as a response variable, turbidity and tank water added were each missing from one of the top two models.

284

285 Discussion

In this study, we set out to untangle some of the challenges of eDNA detection of a very rare target organism in turbid conditions. First, we adapted a protocol for detection of delta smelt eDNA based on an assay developed for detection of delta smelt tissue in predator guts (Baerwald et al. 2011). The calculated Limit of Detection (LOD) and Limit of Quantification (LOD) indicate this part of the protocol is optimized for use eDNA detection of delta smelt. These limits can help guide interpretation of eDNA results (Figure 5).

We found that (1) turbidity decreased detection, (2) pore size appear less important than filter type for increasing detection in turbid water, and (3) prefiltration has mixed results. In non-turbid water, all filters except 10 μ m polycarbonate filters had 100% detection and eDNA copies at or above the LOQ. This result is consistent with the presumed size of eDNA particles (1-10 μ m; Turner et al., 2014). Filters with smaller pores (<1 μ m) recommended to optimize eDNA capture can lead to reduced sample

299 volumes and longer filtration times (Li et al. 2018). We did not see a clear pattern of 300 larger pore sizes (as listed in filter description; Table 1) performing better in turbid water; 301 filter material and construction may be more important characteristics. Despite low 302 sample volumes. Sterivex cartridge filters used with a prefilter provided the most 303 consistent results in terms of eDNA copy number. Cartridge filters are easier to protect 304 from contamination in the field, however they are more expensive than the circular filters 305 and extraction is time-consuming. Experiments indicated both a reduction in eDNA 306 copies and detections in turbid water that could be partially mitigated with a prefilter for 307 some filter types; prefilters did not appear to perform well when used with glass fiber 308 filters. Filter type and prefilter status appeared to be the most important influences on 309 detection. Glass fiber filters used without a prefilter provide appear to provide more 310 efficient and economical detection of eDNA.

311

312 Interpretation of low concentration eDNA

313 LOD and LOQ help establish standard practices for reporting eDNA detections, 314 especially for detection of low-concentration eDNA (Klymus et al. 2019). The LOD of the 315 Tagman assay used for delta smelt eDNA detection (Baerwald et al. 2011) was at the 316 theoretical lowest limit of 3 copies per reaction, indicating that qPCR detection was well-317 optimized. eDNA copy numbers were generally below the LOQ (i.e., unreliable for 318 guantification). In turbid water, there was not a clear distinction in detection between 319 samples with 0.5mL and 1L of tank water added in turbid water (Figure 5). Copy number 320 is likely an unreliable metric for using eDNA to model abundance or biomass of a rare 321 fish in turbid water; presence/absence is a more straightforward signal to interpret when

samples vary turbidity. These results also suggest that large turbidity differences
 between samples can prevent an apples-to-apples comparison of eDNA sample
 concentration for the same target species.

325 For rare species, even detection/non-detection can be challenging to interpret: 326 when is a weak signal considered a positive detection? High Cg values (>40) are often 327 treated as unreliable and therefore interpreted as potential false positive detections. 328 However, the common practice of setting non-detect values to 40 may introduce bias 329 (McCall et al. 2014) and increase the false negative detection rate. As in many areas of 330 science, it is impossible to "prove the negative." In this study, 3 of 432 gPCR reactions 331 (less than 1%) assaying samples with the addition of delta smelt tank water generated 332 Cq values >40 (Table S4). The results of our analysis of these samples known to 333 contain target eDNA suggest that, although rare, Cq values >40 can represent true 334 detections. There was no evidence of contamination in negative control samples. In 335 addition, although the protocol ran 50 cycles, there were no detections above Cq of 42. 336 Similarly, an evaluation of eDNA metabarcoding laboratory protocols shows that, above 337 a certain threshold, additional PCR cycles do not improve species detection (Stoeckle et 338 al. 2022). Given the current limits of technology, interpretation of weak signals is a 339 balancing act between signal and noise and likely specific to each particular application of eDNA. 340

341

342 Effect of suspended particulate matter on filtering and detection

As expected, filters with smaller pores filtered less water. A positive relationship
 has been demonstrated between sample volume and species detection in both turbid

345 (Williams et al. 2017) and non-turbid water, (Wilcox et al. 2015; Wilcox et al. 2016; 346 Sepulvida et al. 2019; Bedwell and Goldberg 2020), although under certain conditions 347 there may not be a relationship between sample volume and species detection (Mächler 348 et al. 2016). Suspended particulate matter clogs filters and increases filtration pressure, 349 requiring re-optimization of the capture method (Thomas et al. 2018). Although we did 350 not measure membrane pressure during our experiment, our data is consistent with 351 poor eDNA capture due to high membrane pressure. Membrane pressure may 352 decrease eDNA retention by breaking apart clumps of cells or bursting cells or 353 mitochondria (Thomas et al. 2018). Glass fiber filters, which performed best in turbid 354 water, have a completely different pore type and construction than the other filters used 355 in this study (Table 1).

356 Pore sizes are not necessarily comparable between filter materials. Filter materials have different pore types. Absolute pores (e.g., polycarbonate and 357 358 polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF)) are uniform in size. These filters act as a screen, 359 retaining all particles larger than the pores on the filter surface. Glass fiber filters have 360 nominal pores that are irregular and retain only a percentage of particles larger than the 361 pore size and are depth filters with multiple layers that trap particles inside a structure. 362 (Cellulose and cellulose nitrate are other nominal pore filter types that are commonly 363 used for eDNA capture.) Despite lower capture efficiency, the thickness of depth filters 364 may provide relatively more space to capture particles in turbid water. Glass fiber filters 365 are significantly less expensive than the other filters used in this study. However, 366 PowerWater extractions use a bead beating step that causes glass fiber to become

367 sponge-like, requiring more time and care to separate the supernatant from the beads368 and filter.

369 Finally, eDNA interactions with turbidity may vary depending characteristics of 370 the particulates. In samples from experimental ponds with turbidity up to 60 NTU. 371 turbidity was positively associated with eDNA detected using 10-µm pore polycarbonate 372 filters and prefiltration, suggesting that eDNA was sticking to larger phytoplankton in the 373 ponds (Barnes et al. 2020). Turbidity in river-dominated estuaries like the SFE is mainly caused by river inputs of suspended particulate matter and resuspension of bottom 374 375 sediments rather than phytoplankton (Cloern 1987). While eDNA can be detected in 376 samples of suspended particulate matter collected in sedimentation boxes in rivers 377 (Díaz et al. 2020), it is not clear if eDNA co-occurs with these particulates or is stuck to 378 them. In our experiment, turbidity reduced detection rates and we did not see evidence 379 of eDNA sticking to particulates. Cellular studies suggest that cells may be more likely 380 to adhere to each other than foreign material (Coman 1961).

381

382 Effect of prefiltration on detection

Prefiltration is sometimes recommended to increase sample volume and decrease filtration time. Our results indicated a significant interaction between filter type and prefiltration. One explanation for the negative impact of prefiltration on glass fiber filters is that prefiltration breaks eDNA particles that cannot be efficiently captured by glass fiber. For example, clumps of cells may be broken up into individual cells or whole cells may be reduced to mitochondria. In cases where copy number quantification is feasible, prefiltration in combination with end filters with small pores may provide more

consistent results across turbidity conditions. Prefiltration also increases the cost and
effort in filtering. If the study goal is to determine species presence/absence, and budget
or time is limited, then our results indicate the most practical approach for rare species
detection in turbid conditions is to use glass fiber filters without prefiltration.

394

395 Future directions

396 Experimental work is necessarily limited to a relatively narrow range of treatments but can help tease out the effects of turbidity on eDNA detection without the 397 398 complexity of natural systems. eDNA is not homogeneously distributed in natural 399 environments, making it more difficult to determine if decreased detections in turbid 400 water reflect real patterns of occurrence or limitations of eDNA detection. eDNA 401 samples collected in relatively more turbid water (Secchi depth 73 cm; see 402 Supplemental File S7 for the relationship between Secchi depth and turbidity) can yield 403 more detections when turbid conditions are more favorable (Kumar et al. 2021). 404 Experimental work encompassing a wide range of turbidity conditions could help further 405 our understanding of eDNA detection in turbid water. A correction factor could be 406 developed to account for the decrease in detection observed as turbidity increases, 407 although such corrections may be particle- or habitat-specific. 408 Finally, turbidity (an optical measurement) is often approximated using other metrics (e.g., water clarity, total suspended solids, filtration time), severely restricting the 409 410 ability to compare eDNA studies conducted in turbid water. Comparable measurements

411 may help optimize eDNA methods and data interpretation when turbidity is a significant

412 characteristic of the target species habitat. Optical measurements taken using

turbidimeters and probes are the most objective, repeatable, and accurate across a
broad range of values of turbidity and can be used in most water bodies (Pickering
1976). Water clarity measured by Secchi disk is a less expensive alternative but cannot
be used certain conditions (e.g., fast moving water) and is subject to human error
(Carlson and Simpson 1996). Filtration time as a proxy for turbidity is less useful
because it is difficult to calibrate across different studies and filtration set-ups.

419

420 Conclusions

421 More knowledge of endangered fishes is needed to meet the conservation goals 422 (Guy et al. 2021), presenting a perfect opportunity to employ high sensitivity methods 423 like eDNA detection for surveys and monitoring. eDNA detection methods, however, are 424 not "one size fits all" (Barnes and Turner 2016; Kumar et al. 2021). We use this 425 comparison of eDNA capture methods under controlled conditions to help guide best 426 practices for the real-world challenge of detecting a rare species in turbid 427 conditions. Turbidity and filter type influence eDNA detection success and prefiltration 428 may not always be beneficial. These findings provide optimism that reliable and 429 repeatable eDNA detections of rare species are possible in turbid when appropriately 430 optimized methods are used.

431

432 Data accessibility

433 Data and R code are available at https://github.com/annholmes/eDNA-experiments-in-434 turbid-water.

435

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695	
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697 Conception and design: AH, MB, JR, BS, AF

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699	Field sampling: AH, BM
700	Data analysis: AH with input from BM
701	Prepared first draft of manuscript: AH
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703	
704	Table and Figure Legends
705	
706	Table 1. Characteristics of the filters and prefilter used in the filtration experiment.
707	
708	Table 2. Reagent volumes (a) and qPCR thermocycling protocol (b) for delta smelt
709	eDNA detection.
710	
711	Table 3. Summary of detection rate and DNA copies detected for each treatment in the
712	filtration experiment (turbidity, prefilter, and amount of tank water added (mL)). Further
713	details in
714	Supplementary Data S5. GF, glass fiber filter; PC, polycarbonate filter; ST, Sterivex
715	PVDF filter.
716	
717	Table 4. Summary of best models for success of delta smelt eDNA detection using (a)
718	eDNA copies and (b) detection/non-detection as the response variables. Results of all
719	models tested are provided Tables S6 and S7.
720	

721	Figure 1. Upper San Francisco Estuary (California, USA) collection sites (inset) for
722	water used in filtration experiments. Non-turbid water (~5 NTU) was collected from the
723	upper Sacramento Deep Water Shipping Channel (38.5653, -121.5539) and turbid
724	water (~50 NTU) was collected from upper Prospect Slough (35.5299, -121.589),
725	adjacent to the shipping channel. (Map made using kepler.gl and mapbox.)
726	
727	Figure 2. Schematic representation of filtration experiment. Three biological replicates
728	of 6 treatments were each filtered on 4 different filter types and assessed in 6 qPCR
729	replicates using a species-specific assay (Baerwald et al. 2011). GF, glass fiber filter;
730	PC, polycarbonate filter; ST, Sterivex cartridge filter.
731	
732	Figure 3. Calibration curve showing Limit of Detection (LOD) for one replicate (2.47
733	copies) and the Limit of Quantification (LOQ; 67 copies) for the delta smelt Taqman
734	assay (Baerwald et al. 2011). Calculations follow standard methods for validating eDNA
735	assays (Klymus et al. 2019; Merkes et al. 2019). Only points in the middle 2 quartiles of
736	standards with at least 50% detection (black circles) are included in the calculations.
737	
738	Figure 4. Results of filtration experiments as detection/non-detection of qPCR
739	replicates (n=6) within 1-L biological replicates (n=3) for each treatment. Rows are
740	treatment (turbidity and prefiltration), columns are filter type, and amount of delta smelt
741	tank water added is within each box. GF, glass fiber filter; PC, polycarbonate filter; ST,
742	Sterivex cartridge filter.
743	

744	Figure 5. Results of filtration experiments as eDNA copies in qPCR replicates (n=6)
745	within 1-L biological replicates (n=3) for each treatment. Rows are treatment (turbidity
746	and prefiltration), columns are filter type, and amount of delta smelt tank water added is
747	within each box. The black dotted line is the Limit of Quantification (LOQ) and the red
748	dashed line is the Limit of Detection (LOD). GF, glass fiber filter; PC, polycarbonate
749	filter; ST, Sterivex cartridge filter.
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Filters	Abbreviation	Filter shape	Filter type	Pore size	Pore type
Sterivex polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF; MilliporeSigma)	ST	cartridge	screen	0.45 μm	absolute
Glass fiber (Whatman)	GF	47mm diameter	depth	1.6 µm	nominal
Polycarbonate track-etched (MilliporeSigma)	PC	47mm diameter	screen	5 µm	absolute
Polycarbonate track-etched (MilliporeSigma)	PC	47mm diameter	screen	10 µm	absolute
Prefilter					
Nylon net (MilliporeSigma)	NN	47mm diameter	screen	20 µm	mesh

- .

Reagent	Volume
Taqman Environmental Master Mix 2.0 (Applied Biosystems)	10 µl
Primer CytB-Htr-F (10 μM)	1.8 µl
Primer CytB-Htr-R (10 µM)	1.8 µl
Probe CytB-Htr-P	0.3 µl
DNA template	6.1 µl
Total	20 μl

Step	Time	Temperature	Cycles	
Initial denaturation	10 min	95℃	1	
Denaturation	15 sec	95℃	50	
Annealing/Extension	1 min	63℃	50	

Treatment	Detection	DN	A copies per	reaction (6.1	µl template)			Mean DNA
Non-turbid	Positive qPCR replicates: 6 replicates x 3 bottles	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Approximate volume filtered (mL)	copies adjusted for volume filtered
GF+500	18/18	233.4	203.7	94.3	141	489.8	1000	233.4
PC10+500	16/18	24.2	11.4	22.8	0	63.8	1000	24.2
PC5+500	18/18	68.6	60.3	46.1	9.6	161.4	1000	68.6
ST+500	18/18	106.6	92.7	98.9	26.8	476.8	500	213.2
GF+1000	18/18	324.7	310.1	111.9	128.4	560.4	1000	324.7
PC10+1000	17/18	53.3	48.3	34.9	0	135.5	1000	53.3
PC5+1000	18/18	106.4	103.5	40.4	58.8	187.1	1000	106.4
ST+1000	18/18	238.1	173.3	157.2	73.4	506.6	500	476.2
Turbid without prefilter								
GF+500	18/18	30.8	34.7	15.8	5.9	55	1000	30.8
PC10+500	8/18	3.3	0	4.7	0	15.7	450	7.3
PC5+500	10/18	5.8	3.9	6.6	0	20.2	200	29
ST+500	11/18	8.3	5	9.5	0	31	100	83
GF+1000	17/18	46.9	47.4	33.7	0	99.4	1000	46.9
PC10+1000	9/18	7.1	2.5	11.3	0	45.5	450	15.8
PC5+1000	5/18	5.5	0	10	0	31.5	200	27.5
ST+1000	12/18	8.4	6.5	8.3	0	22.5	100	84
Turbid with prefilter								
GF+500	9/18	23.2	3.3	34.9	0	94.2	1000	23.2
PC10+500	17/18	49.3	49	27.2	0	96.5	750	65.7
PC5+500	17/18	31.7	36.8	23.5	0	76.5	200	158.5
ST+500	17/18	21.9	20.4	12.5	0	41.4	150	146
GF+1000	9/18	29.3	19.9	33	0	98.7	1000	29.3
PC10+1000	17/18	38.8	29.1	25.7	8.3	80.1	750	51.7
PC5+1000	17/18	99.4	64.2	89.6	4.6	269.1	200	497
ST+1000	17/18	44.7	46.8	22.2	8.4	80.7	150	298

Fixed effects model structure for Log(eDNA Copies + 1)	ΔAICc	Wi	Cumulative W _i
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Tank water added +			
Filter*Turbidity + Filter*Prefilter	0	0.4974	0.4974
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Tank water added +			
Filter*Turbidity + Filter*Prefilter	0	0.4974	0.9948
Fixed effects model structure for Detection/Non-detection	ΔAICc	Wi	Cumulative W _i
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Filter*Prefilter	0	0.381	0.381
Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Tank water added + Filter*Prefilter	0.1	0.356	0.737
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Tank water added +			
Filter*Prefilter	1.7	0.16	0.897
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Filter*Prefilter +			
Filter*Turbidity	3.8	0.056	0.953
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Volume + Tank water added +			
Filter*Prefilter + Filter*Turbidity	5.6	0.023	0.976
Turbidity + Filter + Prefilter + Tank water added +			
Filter*Prefilter + Filter*Turbidity	5.6	0.023	0.999

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